1: Evans-Pritchard E-S (1931, 1936) 1940
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Also by waiting till the dew has evaporated they consider they lessen the risk of digestive troubles, for in the rains the ground is cold and damp till a late hour. A further reason for keeping the cattle late in the kraals is that if they are loosened early they soon graze to repletion and begin to wander in all directions, since they are not usually herded in the rains.

2. It at once strikes a European that the condition of drinking water at periods of the dry season leaves much to be desired, especially if he has to drink it himself. Sometimes the pools have almost dried up and contain foul, even slimy, water which men and cattle drink. I have wondered why they do not move sooner from these small pools, such as that shown on Plate XXI (*b*), around which they camp in the early drought, to the rivers and lakes where they make their final concentrations, but I do not distrust their judgement, for they are fully aware that dirty water is neither palatable to, nor good for, the cattle, and when circumstances permit they are at pains to ensure that they are supplied with clean water as often as they require it. In moving camp they have to take into account a number of desiderata: pasturage, fishing, the harvest of *Balanites aegyptiaca*, the second millet harvest, &c., besides conditions of water.

3. Unlike some East African peoples Nuer do not keep too many entire animals. If they err at all it is in keeping too few. On the limited observations made it was estimated that there is one adult bull to about thirty or forty adult cows. Nuer try to select as stud bulls the calves of their best milch cows so that they may breed good milch cows from them. They say that if they did not castrate most of the bull calves the cows would get no peace and there would be constant fighting in the kraals and commotion in the byres. A calf is not castrated till it is about eighteen months to two years old: 'When its dam has had another calf and a third is in its womb.' It is thrown, the scrotum is cut with a spear, and the testicles drawn out and severed. There is little loss of blood and the animal soon recovers. A calf may be castrated for sacrificial purposes at any time, but otherwise Nuer prefer to perform the operation in the dry season for there is less chance of inflammation than in the rains. Bulls are not discouraged from fighting unless they belong to the same herd, and fights are often cited in

1: Evans-Pritchard E-S (1931, 1936) 1940
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[32] and is cracked into deep fissures. The wet and dry seasons
[33] are therefore very pronounced and the transition from one to the other sudden.

[34] Scarcity of rain is probably more serious than low river water, but both may inconvenience Nuer to the point of famine, because sufficient water may not be held up in the clay beds to enable the grasses to recover from firing; inland watercourses may quickly dry up and compel movement to lakes and rivers earlier than is desirable; and there may be a shortage of the marsh pasturage which is usually the mainstay of the cattle at the end of the dry season. Insufficient rain may also destroy the millet. Moreover, it is probable that low rainfall over the whole of North-East Africa causes insufficiency of rain and low rivers to occur in Nuerland simultaneously. Western Nuerland is less subject to drought than Eastern Nuerland, and to the west of the Nile there is always water within easy reach of villages. This seems largely due to the fact that the Bahr el Jebel and the Bahr el Ghazal do not sink in their beds to any extent, since they are fed by perennial streams and have enormous marsh and lake reservoirs. High rainfall and high river water probably also go together and in such years of flood it is difficult for the cattle to find enough grazing to maintain life.

[35] The main characteristics of Nuerland are: (1) It is dead flat. (2) It has clay soils. (3) It is very thinly and sporadically wooded. (4) It is covered with high grasses in the rains. (5) It is subject to heavy rainfall. (6) It is traversed by large rivers which flood annually. (7) When the rains cease and the rivers fall it is subject to severe drought.

These characteristics interact with one another and compose an environmental system which directly conditions Nuer life and influences their social structure. The determination is of so varied and complex a nature that we do not attempt to summarise its full significance at this stage of our description, but shall ask ourselves a simpler question: to what extent are the Nuer controlled by their environment as herdsmen, fishermen, and gardeners? We have demonstrated that their chief interest is in their herds and shall first discuss how this interest, combined with physical conditions, necessitates a certain mode of life.

[p. 86 contains no textual material]

1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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Here we make only two observations of a more general order. (1) Although the Nuer have a mixed pastoral-horticultural economy their country is more suitable for cattle husbandry than for horticulture, so that the environmental bias coincides with the bias of their interest and does not encourage a change in the balance in favour of horticulture. If it were not for rinderpest—a recent introduction—it might be possible to live a purely pastoral life, but, as we shall see later, a purely horticultural life would be precarious. (2) Nuer cannot, except in a few favoured spots, live in one place throughout the year. The floods drive them and their herds to seek the protection of higher ground. Absence of water and pasture on this higher ground compels them to move during the drought. Hence their life is of necessity migratory, or, more strictly, transhumant. A further reason that urges them to change their abode according to the seasons is their inability at the present time to subsist solely on the products of their cattle. A milk and meat diet has to be supplemented by grain and fish; and whereas the most suitable place for cultivation of millet is inland, on the edge of slightly elevated ground, fish are found in rivers which are generally distant from these elevated stretches.

## II

Excess or insufficiency of water is the first problem that faces Nuer. It is essential that cattle should be protected from the water that covers the country in the rains, for they quickly get diseases of the hoof if they have to stand in water for long periods. Village sites are selected on the only spots affording such protection to man and beast: patches of slightly higher ground. When the rains have ceased water supplies near villages are soon exhausted, because, naturally, the highest and driest sites have been selected for building, and it becomes necessary to move to pools, lakes, lagoons, marshes, and rivers. Owing to the vast rivers that traverse Nuerland and the thorough irrigation they give to the country through a network of channels there is seldom difficulty about finding surface water, though people may have to go far to obtain it. Only in parts of Lou, Gaawar, and Eastern Jikany, as far as is known, are they regularly forced to dig wells in the beds of streams at the height of the

[p. 58 contains no textual material]

1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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drought. Twenty years ago this was probably more customary among the Lou than to-day, for they had not then the undisputed access to open water that most sections now enjoy. The wells, which have to be redug each year, are two to three feet in diameter and twenty to thirty feet in depth, and their excavation takes two or three days of hard labour. The water, about a foot deep, is clean and fresh and the wells are frequently cleaned out, steps being cut in the walls for this purpose (Plate XV (b)). Each household has its own well which is surrounded by shallow mud troughs where the cattle are watered three times daily. Considerable labour is required to draw water for them and much attention is devoted to prevent it from being fouled by sheep and goats, which have their special troughs. Fights sometimes break out over these troughs.

The problem of water is closely related to that of vegetation. In their seasonal movements Nuer seek pasturage as well as drinking-water and they take the cattle to where they know that both can be obtained. When herdsmen drive the cattle from camp to grazing grounds they do not guide them haphazardly across the plain, but with purpose towards stretches of succulent grasses. It is probable, too, that not only are daily and seasonal movements influenced by distribution of grasses, but also that the direction of Nuer expansion has been controlled by their habitat. Nuer claim that they have not overrun the country of the Ngok Dinka because it is poor pasture land and that they are little interested in the Shilluk kingdom for the same reason.

The early rains are the season of fatness, for then the grasses germinate, or renew their growth after the long drought, and the cattle can graze on the young shoots to their content. As the rains advance, grazing becomes more difficult, the ground being flooded and the vegetation rank, and in years of high water may be a serious problem. The cattle have to rely on the short grasses that prevail on village ridges: a further reason that compels Nuer to occupy these sites in the rains. When rain ceases, the overcropped grasses on these ridges soon wither, while the rank grasses of the plains impede the movements of the herds and no longer provide good grazing. Therefore Nuer hasten to burn them as soon as they are dry, since some species

[p. 60 contains no textual material]

1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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send up new shoots a few days after being fired—probably those that have roots long enough to tap water held up in the clay beds and a clump formation that protects the core of the plants from the flames. If it were not for this habit cattle could not survive, at any rate inland, during a dry year. When the grasses have been fired cattle can wander as they please, being no longer frustrated by surface water and rank growth, and satisfy their appetites on the new shoots. As water becomes scarcer and grazing poorer Nuer fall back on permanent water where they make large camps and the cattle can graze on marsh plants that abound in numberless depressions and make good milk. In May, when the new rains set in, they are able to return to their villages. The few cattle Nuer possess, the vast spaces they can exploit, and their nomadic existence ensure that there is nowhere serious overgrazing.

Variation of water-supplies and vegetation thus forces Nuer to move and determines the direction of their movements. In a later section we shall see that fishing is another important consideration in these movements. In late November or early December the youths and some of the girls take the cattle from the villages to camps, generally some miles away, leaving the older people to harvest the second millet crop and repair huts and byres. Usually a few lactating cows are left behind to provide milk for the small children. These early camps (*wec flow*) are made near pools in a place where the grasses have previously been fired. In Lou country they are often made in thornwood forest, where *Balanites aegyptiaca* is abundant, but in many parts of Nuerland, especially to the west of the Nile, they are formed on stream banks for fishing. When the second harvest has been reaped the cattle are brought back to the villages to eat the millet stalks, if they are near enough. As pools dry up, pasturage is exhausted, or fishing becomes poor, the youths make new camps, where they are joined by the married people, and they may move camp several times before settling in their final camping grounds (*wec mai*) at the side of lakes or rivers in January and February. The early camps are small, being manned by a few kinsmen, but they tend to get larger as the season advances and water becomes scarcer, and the final camps may contain several hundred persons.

1; Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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The dry season movements of the Lou, the Eastern Jikany, and the Zeraf River tribes are shown on the sketch-maps accompanying this section. Of the Sobat tribes, the Lou stay inland as long as they can and in a wet year may remain inland throughout the dry season, falling back on the deeper pools, some large enough to be called lakes, e.g. Moot tot, Moot dit, Fading, Fadiet, Gwongwong, Yollei, Teyjor, and Nyeroi. If forced to leave them the Gun primary section moves north to the Sobat and south-west to the flooded plains of the Bahr el Zeraf in the country of the Twic Dinka, and the Mor primary section moves north-east to the Nyanding river and east to the Geni and Pibor. In the old days fighting frequently occurred if the Lou moved to these camping sites, because the banks of the Sobat were in the hands of the Bahr Dinka while their occupation of the Geni and Pibor was disputed by the Anuak and Beir and their move to the south-west was trespass on Dinka grazing grounds. Even the lower reaches of the Nyanding do not belong to the Lou, but to the Gaajok. Therefore they probably only moved to these sites when absolutely necessary.

The Eastern Jikany have not so much need to move as have the Lou. Nevertheless they all fall back on rivers or marshes before the drought is far advanced. The three primary sections of the Gaajok move as follows: the Lang concentrate on the Sobat, the Wanghat move south-east to the banks of the Pibor and Gila, and the Yol either camp near the junction of the Wokau and Sobat or northwards along the edge of the Machar swamp. The Gaagwong move to the western end of Khor Makwai. The Gaajak primary sections move as follows: the northern Thiang sections (Kang and Lony) go to the Daga river while the southern Thiang section (Tar) and the Rong, Nyarua, Wan, and Cany sections camp on the banks of the Baro, Jokau, Adura, and Makwai, mainly in Ethiopia.

The three Zeraf river tribes fall back on the Bahr el Jebel and the Bahr el Zeraf and streams flowing into these two rivers, as shown in Mr. Lewis's sketch. The Gaawar who live on the left bank of the Zeraf can build their villages on high ground near that river and do not have to move far in the drought.

The Western Nuer mainly camp on inland streams which are no great distance from their villages. The Karlual primary section of the Leek tribe mostly concentrate first on the Lough stream and afterwards on the Cal and Waagtar, all of which link up with the Bahr el Ghazal. The Dok camp near pools in the beds of inland streams. The Western Jikany move to the Jikany marshes at the edge of the Bahr el Ghazal. Without giving

1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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further details, which, indeed, I could not furnish, about the disposition of the Western Nuer in the dry season, it may be said that they travel very much less than most of the Eastern Nuer tribes, especially the Lou.

Different villages and sections tend to move about the same time and to visit the same pools each year, though time and place and, to some extent, degree of concentration vary according to climatic conditions. Usually, however, the main dry season camps are formed yearly at the same spots. When the rains commence in May the older people return to the villages to prepare the ground for sowing and they are joined there in June by the youths and girls, who bring the cattle with them. When the younger people return the whole camp is broken up on the same day, and the cattle are driven to their village with as few halts as possible. The move from villages to camps, on the contrary, is less concerted and abrupt. The younger members of two or three families form a small camp, after the firing of the grasses in November, when and where they please. Several days later they may be joined by other people from the same village, or these may form a separate camp. There is still water and some grazing on the village sites and there is still work to be accomplished in gardens and homesteads. Thus, while camps change into villages overnight, villages change into camps more slowly. By the height of the drought every one is in camp and the villages are silent and deserted.

The year thus consists of a period in villages and a period in camps, and the camp period is divided into the early part of the dry season when the younger people move from small camp to small camp and the latter part of the dry season when every one is concentrated in large camps round permanent water which they do not leave till they return to their villages.

## III

Nuer are forced into villages for protection against floods and mosquitoes and to engage in horticulture, and are forced out of villages into camps by drought and barrenness of vegetation and to engage in fishing. I describe these villages and camps very shortly.

Some tribes are better off for sites than others. The Lou

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361 and the Eastern Jikany are especially fortunate in this respect, but in Western Nuerland, though there are many suitable ridges, the country is more inundated and there are few elevated stretches of any size, except, as far as my observations go, among sections of the Leek and Dok tribes, which are better off than those tribes which lie in between.

What is needed for a village site is not only room for building but also for grazing and cultivations. Many villages are perched on mounds (Plates VII and XVI), the surfaces of which are accumulations of debris, at the edge of those rivers that have banks in flood, and the cattle graze on the slopes or in near-by thornwood forest, where also gardens are cultivated. More usually homesteads are strung out along sandy ridges (Plate VIII), a mile or two in length and a few hundred yards in breadth, sites which allow greater spacial division between them, and the gardens run at their backs and the grazing-grounds to their fronts. In some parts of Nuerland, especially in the favoured tribes I have mentioned, stretches of higher ground, sometimes several miles in extent, enable the people to build anywhere, except near the narrow depressions that thread them, and little groups of homesteads are dotted here and there, surrounded, and separated, by their gardens and grazing grounds. Nuer prefer to dwell in this greater privacy and show no inclination for true village life.

By making their villages on elevated ground Nuer keep themselves and their cattle above the flood that lies everywhere on the vast plain beneath and gain some protection from the swarms of mosquitoes which breed in the standing water. In [312] Western Nuerland I have seen low mud dykes at the foot of occupied ridges to keep back the water in years of heavy flood. As they build always on the highest spots the torrential 361 132 rains that fall daily after June run off the slope so that the hard floors of kraals soon dry. How terrific are these rains may be judged from Plate XIV, taken from under the awning of my tent during a moderate shower in August, and how considerably they flood all but village sites may be seen in Plate XII, which shows a millet garden, on a higher level than the plain, in October. On a tour of Western Nuerland in October of 1936, a fairly dry year, we walked almost continuously in several

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gardens have to be made on higher land. Where circumstances permit homesteads to be built over a wide stretch of country gardens can be made almost anywhere between them, but where they are strung out along a ridge there is less choice, for the back of the ridge is too hard, does not retain enough water, and is required for grazing. Cultivations are therefore made behind the huts and byres between the summit of the ridge and the sunken plain. Among the Western Nuer, in the higher parts where there is a slight slope, small dams are often constructed to prevent the water running from the gardens. If, on the contrary, the millet is likely to be flooded where the ridge slopes into the plain, drainage canals, sometimes several feet deep and over fifty yards in length, are dug to take excess of water into the bush. These gardens form a continuous line behind the homesteads and if there is sufficient land there for cultivation people do not cultivate elsewhere. If there is not enough land they cultivate along the ridge beyond the confines of the village where it is too damp for building but not too flooded for millet gardens, or in near-by forest.

There is enough land for everybody on the Nuer scale of cultivation and consequently questions of tenure do not arise. It is taken for granted that a man has a right to cultivate the ground behind his homestead unless some one is already using it, and a man can choose any spot outside the village which is not occupied by the gardens of others. New-comers are always in some way related to some of the villagers, and kinsmen do not dispute about gardens. Moreover, owing to the conformation of Nuer villages, there is a rough correlation between the size of population and the area of cultivable land, for where suitable land is limited so is space for building.

It has been remarked that when once established millet shows great resistance to climatic variations. The difficulty is for it to become established. It frequently happens shortly after sowing that there is a short period of drought in which the young shoots wither and die. Sometimes this is due to the hungry people sowing too soon, but it is generally unavoidable, because if they wait too long before planting, the millet becomes subject to smut and neither bears nor ripens properly. It also frequently happens that heavy and violent rain destroys the

1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
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PLATE XV

a. Windscreen (Lou)

b. A well in the bed of the Nyanding (Lou)

[Face p. 134]

1: Evans-Pritchard E-S (1931, 1936) 1940
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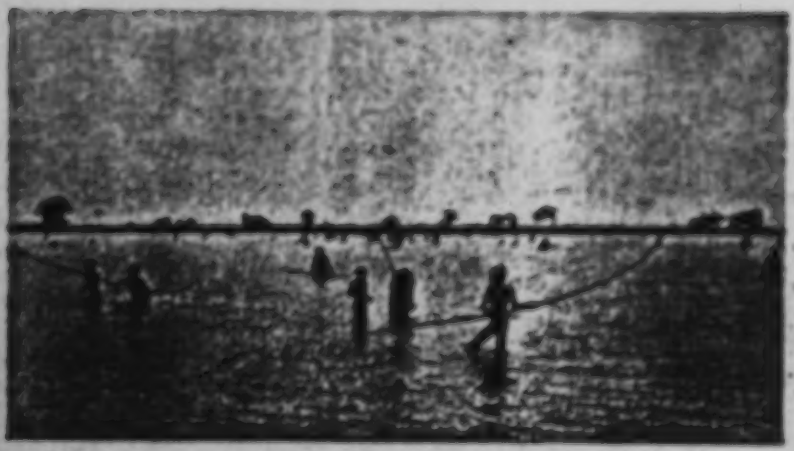
PLATE XXII

a. Spearing fish from dam (Eastern Gaajok)



b. Harpoon-fishing in Lake Fadei (Lou)

[Face p. 210]

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1934)1938
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where in deep puddles which slowly extend till by the middle of June the whole surface of the country, except for occasional higher land, is under water. Nuerland has then the appearance of a great grass-covered swamp, there being stagnant rivers, lagoons, and pools, wherever there is a depression in the level surface, and islands wherever slightly elevated ridges and knolls rise from the ground. On these elevated spots are perched the Nuer villages.

The rivers begin to fall about the same time as the rains begin to cease. Nuerland then dries quickly. The blazing sun evaporates the surface water while the streams instead of being channels of overflow from the rivers now begin to feed the rivers, and hence drain their basins, as they sink in their beds. The grasses are dry enough by the middle of November for the Nuer to commence to fire them and by the middle of December most of the country has been burnt and the surface is cracked into deep fissures. So parched is it at this season that it is difficult to find enough water for men and herds. The wet and dry seasons are therefore very pronounced in Nuerland.

The main characteristics of the country are (1) that it is dead flat, (2) that it has clayey soils, (3) that it is mainly treeless, (4) that it is covered with high grasses in the rains, (5) that it is subject to a heavy seasonal rainfall, (6) that all its rivers flood, and (7) that when the rains cease and the rivers fall it is subject to a season of severe drought.

A year in which the rivers are low is probably not so serious for the Nuer as a year in which there is little rain. Nevertheless, when the rivers are low the clay beds may not hold up sufficient water to enable the grasses to spring up again after the annual firing, and the inland watercourses, which to a great extent rely for their water on the flooding of the rivers, may fail early in the dry season and compel the people to move to lakes and river banks earlier than they would normally do, and there may also be a shortage of marsh pasturage which is usually the mainstay of the cattle at the end of the dry season. On the other hand, if there is insufficient rain the millet crop dies and the grasses, deprived of subterranean supplies of water, do not spring

4: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1938
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312 up after firing. Therefore, whilst a year of little flooding may cause some inconvenience a year of low rainfall may cause famine. It is probable that years of low rainfall over Nuerland are also years when river water is low, *i.e.*, when the rainfall is low over the whole of North East Africa. The two together may cause Nuer great distress. Similarly, a year of exceptionally high rainfall is probably also a year of high river water and the combination sometimes causes such serious flooding that it is very difficult for the cattle to find pasturage. The hardy millet plant does not seem to be affected by moderate flooding.

133 312 Such are the general conditions in Nuerland. So important is it to understand these conditions that I may be pardoned for adding some further observations. Most of my sojourn among the Nuer was spent in Lou country or on its confines, and what I write of Lou country applies equally to the whole region between the Nile and the Pibor and to most of the Eastern Jikany area to the north of the Sobat. Lou country is part of the flat plain that lies between the Nile and the foothills of the Abyssinian escarpment. It is bounded to the north by the Sobat River and to the east by the Pibor River. It thus forms part of the basin of the Sobat, which is formed from the junction of the Baro and the Pibor. The water of the Baro comes entirely from the Abyssinian highlands. The water of the Pibor comes mostly from the same region though the river drains also to a lesser degree the northern slopes of the Plateau of the Great Lakes and the Sudan Plains. The Baro is a mountain torrent in the Abyssinian highlands but when it reaches the plains it begins to wind about and form swamps. The three main streams which run from south to north across Lou country, the Nyanding, the Wangnyait, and the Filus, are channels of overflow from the Sobat when it is in flood. It is the same to the north of the Baro-Sobat, in Gaajok country, where, for example, water flows out of the Baro along the Macar stream to lose itself in the vast Macar swamp. Here and there in Lou country are low ridges, some stretching several miles, and on the banks of the Sobat and Pibor are occasional knolls, known in the Sudan as *dabbas*, and on these islands of elevated ground the Nuer

6: Evans-Pritchard E-S (1931, 1936)1938
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build their huts and byres. As most of Lou country is under water in the rains they are then literally islands. 133 312

The Sobat begins to rise at the end of April or the beginning of May and it is at its highest when the rains are at their greatest. Water flows over its banks forming lagoons and down the streams which traverse Lou country. According to the Nuer, as the water flows out of the Sobat southwards down these streams it meets the rainwater flowing northwards from their upper reaches. Thus one may observe the Pibor flowing first one way and then the other way. Whilst rainwater pours in numerous small channels into the streams they are discharging water along swampy depressions into the interior of the country.

The amount of surface water in Lou country varies from year to year but in most years it is flooded to several inches deep from July to September. This would not prevent one from trekking, unpleasant experience though it would be, but the depressions which occur at frequent intervals are a more serious obstacle for they necessitate constant wading through deep water. Even at the end of May long treks are more than Europeans care to face—the Nuer themselves move freely at all seasons of the year. Thus, at the end of May, in 1935, I found it a struggle to reach Konye from Akobo though it is only a distance of some ten miles. In July of the same year I was practically imprisoned at Yakwac for water lay everywhere several inches deep at the back of the hamlet and progress through the rank grasses was laborious and even dangerous because it was impossible to detect the deep water-filled holes in which a leg might easily be broken.

Sometimes the inundation reaches the proportions of a flood. Lou Nuer have told me that the Fadang Dinka, who occupied Lou country before the Nuer ousted them, once sustained a season of drought followed by such devastating floods that people lived on the tops of trees and ate leaves. There was great loss of life among the older people. Jackson records that in 1918 "An abnormally high river resulted in the Bahr el Zeraf overflowing its banks and inundating [173]

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1938
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153 the country to the east (Gaawar country) to such an extent that a
•312 journey which, in the ordinary course of events (in the dry season) is a matter of some inconvenience owing to the uncertainty of finding water, had to be performed for a distance of 80 miles in a canoe. And, in the same year, Nyeral post, thirty five miles to the south of Abwong, on the River Sobat (Lou country), which was usually supplied over a waterless tract (in the dry season) was only with the greatest of difficulty kept in touch with civilization owing to the country in between them being almost entirely under water.*

By November the Sobat has commenced to fall and to drain the streams which serve as its channels of overflow in flood. These streams now contribute to its volume of water with the result that the fall of water at Nasser is registered at the Sobat mouth three weeks
132 or more later.† While the land is being drained by the Sobat the rains have ceased and the sun has evaporated surface water. The grasses are burnt and the country takes on its dry season appearance of a fissured waterless waste. The change from wet-season conditions to dry-season conditions is sudden.

[491] Travelling in February from the Sobat to Pathai and thence
133 eastward to Pul Fadoi, along the newly-made motor road, one traverses
137 slightly higher ground through a thin *heglig* forest which screens the
311 full desolation of the country, for, though in reality it offers scanty shade, it gives an appearance of verdure and freshness, and the ground is carpeted with the oval fawn-coloured fruits of the *heglig*. Game is plentiful and forest pools numerous. But the western part of Lou country, occupied by the Mor tribal section, from Pul Fadoi eastwards for over a hundred kilometres, is bleak and its bleakness is, on the whole, typical of the rest of Lou country and of Nuerland in general. It is thickly covered with dead grasses, from 4 to 8 feet high, except where it has been lately burnt for then one sees only wide stretches of charred earth, fissured into a million fragments, like a gigantic ill-fitting jigsaw puzzle, and strewn with burnt stems of grass and with

* Jackson, *op. cit.*

† Hurst and Phillips, *op. cit.*

4: Evans-Pritchard E-S (1931, 1936)1938
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be imagined when one has to stamp one's way through water for ten miles at a stretch. The rank grasses prevent one from leaving the paths and the paths form miniature depressions down which water flows so that it is like walking in the bed of a tiny stream, a sticky bed where every step requires an effort to extract the foot. Rengyan country is amazing at this season of the year. One walks for miles through water to emerge suddenly on a ridge, screened by high grasses till one begins to mount it. Here is a village. One walks through the village to descend into water the other side, and then through miles of water to the next inhabited island. To live in such a country one should be amphibious, like the Nuer, who seem to be in no way inconvenienced by what are to Europeans appalling conditions.

The rains cease in November but so saturated is the earth that a late heavy shower will again inundate the country for 48 hours.

The dry season among the Western Nuer is not so severe as it is among the Eastern Nuer because there is never a shortage of water and the villages are never far from deep lagoons and streams, nor even from the main rivers themselves with their broad fringe of marshes. It is probably only in an exceptionally dry year that the larger inland watercourses entirely dry up. Probably this is in the main due to the fact that the Bahr el Jebel and the Bahr el Ghazal do not sink in their beds like the Sobat and Pibor, since they are fed by permanently flowing streams and have enormous lake and marsh reservoirs. The water of streams and lagoons in Western Nuerland is therefore not so rapidly drained as in Eastern Nuerland. Certainly the water in big streams in Dok country seems to be permanent and in walking through Lek country as late as February in 1930 we had to wade frequently through deep swampy streams and lagoons.

Nuer have expressions to denote the natural features of their country. A treeless plain they call *ghaa mi dea* or, in contrast to dry elevated ridges, *pan*. A ridge or knoll is called *kuir* and *thur* or, in reference to its suitability for human occupation, *gwaadh wec*. Land which is partly inundated in the wet season, but not sufficiently to be called swampy, and is therefore suitable for growing millet, is called

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1938
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but not enough to drown it altogether. The ideal arrangement, which I have often observed among the Western Nuer, is to build on the edge of a whale-backed ridge with the huts and byres facing the broad back of the ridge. This ensures that the cattle will have dry kraals and also permits them to graze on the short grasses of the ridge. At the back of the huts and byres on slightly lower ground are the gardens. These must be on lower ground because the ridge itself is usually sandy and, where occupied, has a hard trodden floor of ashes and debris and is therefore unsuitable for cultivation of millet. They must also be at the back of the huts and byres so that the cattle can move freely to and from their kraals without invading the standing millet. To prevent this happening people erect a thornwood fence between the kraals and the gardens and extend it along both sides of the kraal, so that only the side opening on to the ridge is left unfenced. In Western Nuerland I have seen low mud dykes erected between the flooded plain and the approach to the ridge. These are to prevent the water encroaching too far in years of high flood.

I have sometimes wondered why Nuer so often build their villages on shadeless ridges in the middle of a treeless plain when it would be possible to build in some of the stretches of thornwood or palm forest that one finds here and there in their country. I have often noticed villages built in the open when shady spots are to be found a few hundred yards away. But Nuer can give good reasons for keeping to their dreary sites exposed to the fierce tropical sun and the bitter north wind. In the open their animals are safer from wild beasts; they are less worried by insect pests, and their kraals soon dry after rain. It would appear also that thornwood forest is less suitable for cultivation of millet than more open country. Nevertheless Nuer sometimes build in open forest. I have seen forest villages in parts of Lou and Eastern Gaajok country. The Eastern Gaajok villages, which I have not visited, are mainly in forest country.

Most of these ridges and knolls have probably been occupied for a very long period of time, perhaps long before the Nuer lived in their present home. In digging graves Nuer have found pots and cooking

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The word *ghaik* is used to describe these movements. It does not denote a mere journey but implies a change of residence and the movement of cattle and household goods. It is used alike of men who drive the cattle from village to camp, from camp to camp, and from camp to village. It is also used of women who move separately, carrying their milk vessels and other possessions in baskets, for "*dwak cevka ghak*" "Household goods are like cattle." Of the movement from villages to camps one says "*Ca nath ghaik wiew*," "the people have moved into camp" and of the movement from camps back to villages one says "*Ca nath ghaik ciang*," "the people have moved to the villages."

The Nuer pastoral year may therefore be divided into two main periods, the six wet season months, from June to December, when the people live in their villages, and the six dry season months, from December to June, when they live in camps. The dry season half of the year may be further divided into the earlier part when people are burning the grasses and living in intermediate small camps for a few weeks, and the latter part when they live for several months in large camps near lakes or wells or on the banks of rivers.

## IX.

Inland, especially in Lou country, it is usually necessary to dig wells at the height of the dry season. Twenty years ago this was probably more general than it is today, because, as already explained, the main rivers and marshes lay outside Lou territory. Wells are sometimes dug also in Eastern Jikany country.

As the Sobat falls it drains the streams that intersect Lou country and, before long, their water is reduced to occasional pools where the beds are deepest. In the smaller streams these soon dry up and wells are excavated. Capt. H. H. Wilson first drew attention to these wells at Muöt tot (*Ammoot el Sagheir*) in 1902 and wrote of them: "Dug on the sandy banks of the *khor*, their depth varied from 20 to 30 feet, with a diameter of about 2 feet 6 inches. Owing to the solidarity of the ground, the walls of the well stood without much

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1938
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•312 need of revetting, and great labour must have been expended in their construction. Steps were cut in the walls on opposite sides, to enable a man to descend and ascend."* When I was camped on the Nyanding river in February and March of 1932 only the pools on its lower reaches still contained water, and that was fouled and slimy. Mankac was the last place where there was still surface water to be found. Upstream cattle camps were centred around wells sunk in the beds of the river. The following description was written at Yik.

312 332 Most of the men leave whatever exhausted pool they have been camped around a few days in advance of the women, and cattle, and a few youths left in charge of the cattle, in order that they may prepare the wells, for the cattle must drink as soon as they arrive in their new quarters. Digging wells is a heavy task. The men begin by chopping out a circle in the bed of the river to define the circumference of the well and then pour water over the hard ground to make digging possible. For the first four to six feet down they cut through black river mud, caked hard for the first two feet or so but softer and moister afterwards. They then strike sand and cut through sand for another twenty to thirty feet till they reach water. All the wells at Yik, like those seen by Wilson at Muöt töt, were estimated to be from 20 to 30 feet deep, so that Jackson's statement that "There are no wells in the Nuer country—unless a slight excavation of no greater depth than six feet in certain places can be dignified by this name"† is incorrect. The wells at Yik were about a yard in circumference at the top but lower down they were slightly wider, being funnel-shaped. The sand gets moister the lower the well is dug.

Until a man has dug to some five feet down he can work unaided. Men take it in turn to excavate and throw the mud out of the hole to the surface. When the worker has reached sand an assistant remains at the edge of the well and hauls out the sand in a gourd which has a block of wood running across it and is enclosed in a net. The gourd is lowered by a cord and when filled with sand is hauled to

* Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, p. 140.

† Jackson, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1938
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the surface, the sand being deposited a little way from the mouth of the well. Steps are hollowed out on the opposite sides of the walls at intervals of about two feet.

When water is reached a thick coil of grass tied with twine is lowered to the worker at the bottom and he places it round the sides of the well from the basis to two or three feet up the walls. This is done to prevent sand from falling from the walls into the water. The water is about a foot deep and is clear and fresh.

The work of digging a well takes two or three days. Each *gol*, household, has its own well and each well is surrounded by several circular troughs. A trough (*pany*) is fashioned from the mud excavated from the well. It is about four feet in diameter having a wall a foot high. The wall and floor are pounded hard with a cow's horn, or a bone, to make the trough water-tight, and they are then coated with a layer of sand to keep the water clean and make it attractive to the cattle.

Watering cattle from wells is an unceasing labour. Cattle drink from the troughs as soon as they are loosened in the morning; they return from grazing at midday for another drink, and are watered a third time in the evening before being tethered. Therefore three times a day the troughs have to be filled by the slow process of drawing gourdfuls of water from the well, the gourds being weighted and let down with a cord, and of carrying them to the troughs. Men work late at night to fill the troughs for the morning drink and a large part of the mornings and afternoons are spent in preparing for the midday and evening drinks.

To avoid confusion a man generally loosens a few of his cattle at a time so that they can drink their fill and then give place to others. While they are drinking their masters squat by the side of the trough to prevent any beast from putting its feet in the water and fouling it and to see that it does not damage the walls of the trough. If a cow puts its hoof on the wall or in the water he gives it a sharp rap on the leg with his club. The animals soon understand this rule and meekly circle round the trough, or kneel at the edge of the wall, to

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936)1938
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•312 233 drink. Each beast also soon gets to know its special trough and when loosened or when returning from pasture at once makes for it, though when the camp starts there is often confusion, for if an animal approaches a trough that does not belong to its master it is driven away by the owner of the trough and cows are thus driven from trough to trough till they discover the right one and join the other cattle of their household which are drinking there.

[578] On the arrival of a new household at the camp their kinsmen allow them to use their troughs till they have dug their own wells. Frequent disputes take place over wells for a man guards his water jealously. While I was at Yik several persons near Mutt tôt were killed in a fight that started in a dispute about wells.

A boy is placed on duty to watch the troughs all day long and often he plants a thorn bush in the bed of the river near his troughs and throws some grass on its branches so that he may have a little shade in the heat of the day. The lad's main duty is to prevent the sheep and goats from drinking water at the troughs reserved for the cattle for the cattle do not like drinking after them and they foul the water. Sheep and goats either have their own troughs or are allowed to drink when the cattle have had their fill. But as they graze unattended near the camp they may return at any time and try to drink from one of the cattle-troughs. A boy who allows sheep [681 593] and goats belonging to another household to drink the water drawn for his father's cattle is in for a whipping from his elder brother. Even the crows are driven away from the precious water. The most other boys will do to warn a sleepy comrade that the water of his trough is being drunk is to sing out "*Caa lil o, caa lil*" and one constantly hears this refrain in the camp. When a boy sings this chant every lad looks to his troughs to make sure that it is not from them that water is being drunk.

312 [515] No washing is allowed from the troughs and if a man wants a bath he must get a comrade to pour water over him at a well-side. Every care is taken to keep the water clean and the wells are frequently inspected. If the water is discoloured a man descends to the bottom,

4: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1934)1938
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clean it out, and rearranges the grass cull around the sides. The 312
discoloured water is then drawn out in gourdfuls and thrown away.
They continue drawing the water till they are satisfied that the well
is clean again. Every day the walls of the trough receive a fresh 312
coating of sand and are thus kept smooth and clean. All the work 462
falls to the men and boys. Men, assisted by the bigger boys, dig the
wells and make the troughs and draw the water. The smaller boys
guard the water. Women and girls only draw water for household
purposes.

There were dozens of wells at Yik, the bed of the river having been 312
bored every few yards. As each well supplied two or three troughs
the ground was covered with shiny pools.

## X.

Water is the primary problem of the herdsman's life in Nuerland. 233
A secondary problem, for it arises from excess or insufficiency of water,
is pasturage. In their seasonal movements Nuer are not only seeking
water but also nourishing grasses and when herdsmen take the cattle
from camp to their grazing grounds they do not guide them haphazardly
across the plain but drive them to where they know of succulent grasses.
The best pastures are often far from camp and the cattle have to be
milked early so that they may have time to graze, drink water,
chew the cud, and graze again before returning to camp. It is
necessary to herd the cattle in the dry season, but Nuer say that it is
better to do so at all times of the year though they do not always
act accordingly. When I brought one of my cows from Yakwac to
Mancom early in the rains it was noticeably thinner than the Mancom
cattle. The Mancom people said that the Yakwac cattle do not do
so well as their own because the Yakwac people do not herd their
cattle in the rains and take them to the best pastures but leave them
to graze by themselves. Consequently they graze on the exhausted
pasturage near the homesteads. At Mancom a man always accompanied
the cattle and took them to the richest grasses.

Nuer are great authorities on grasses and know all about their 824
habits and distributions. They never make a mistake in identifying 233

6: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1934)1938
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very much from month to month for there are few seasonal changes at this time of the year. As the river falls it is possible to fish in lagoons and shallows and to bathe on its sandy bed. Then the lagoons dry up. When the river rises fish swim in the weeds and rushes and along some streams they are easily speared from the banks. The banks of the Sobat are too steep for this purpose. There are no longer shallows and bathing is a hasty dip for there is danger from crocodiles. The grazing grounds are changed from time to time as they become exhausted and as streams and lagoons dry up. At Yakwat there was succulent pasturage only where marsh plants still retained their moisture at the river end of lagoons. The people are still in camp when the first rains fall at the end of April or early in May and then there is everywhere an abundance of pasturage. The brown bush becomes green and the baked fissured earth a sodden mire. Dry lagoons become inland flowing streams. The scorching sun is clouded.

On the Sobat we guessed that the first rains had fallen inland by the migration of wild animals from its banks. Giraffe now left us for inland pastures where they would not have to face death every time they approached the river. Other animals likewise moved southwards, even the gazelle. On the northern bank, however, buffaloes still came to the river to drink and were attacked by hungry Nuer. Animals and men must obey the seasons and when there is no water except in inland lakes and lagoons, men, cattle, and wild beasts must drink at the same places. One can hear them at night cautiously coming to the pools to drink. When the rains come all leave for new pastures.

In May one knows that the move back to the wet season villages will shortly take place not only by cloudy skies and movements of game, but also by camp activities. The women are the first to leave camp and one meets them along paths, carrying their household goods in rectangular cane baskets. Youths leave camp early in the morning to cut stakes, generally of thornwood (*bum*) and they spend a large part of the day shaping them into tethering pegs. They also twist new cord. The weather being cooler people do not feel so keenly the need to sleep towards noon. Everyone is becoming restless and

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where strangers are only allowed on sufferance, is a particularly serious infringement of grazing rights, and one which raises a storm of protest quickly followed by blows. Disputes of this nature do not usually start on a tribal scale; the initial quarrel arises between two adjacent cattle-camps near the boundaries, but feelings of indignation may extend along the lines of segmentation until two large segments or even two tribes are ranged against each other. Rights in grazing are recognized and follow the lines of the segmentary system, but are not a constant source of friction. Violation of these rights in years when it was necessary to guard them almost invariably led to hostilities in the past. Nowadays, though fights are not infrequent and boundary disputes are a common cause of blood-feuds, disputes of this nature are often settled peacefully in the courts.

### *Water Rights*

Rights in watering places cannot be treated except in relation to grazing. In the dry season it is the availability of water which largely determines the extent to which certain pastures within the territory of the tribe or the tribal segment are used. This applies particularly to those Nuer tribes who are unable to reach perennial rivers like the *Zeraf*, Bahr el Jebel, or Sobat. Disputes over pools, especially in dry years when they dry out early in the year, often arise and may lead to bloodshed. Water rights, however, follow the same principles which govern the division of territory according to the segmentation of tribal structure. Shallow wells are sometimes sunk, and are the property of the individual who digs them, but subject always to his obligation to share with his kinsmen and neighbours.

### *Fishing Rights and Hunting Rights*

Fishing rights go with the divisions of territory in which the fish pools are situated and are guarded with perhaps a greater intensity of feeling than are rights in land. Fishing in the riverain area is essentially a dry season occupation, and there are fishing pools or stretches of shallow rivers and watercourses attached to and situated within grazing areas. Fishing is also a collective activity, and the right of the individual is limited by his membership of the tribal segment to which the pool belongs. Fishing again depends largely on the climatic conditions prevailing. A season of heavy rainfall followed by an abrupt drop in levels in the rivers and their tributaries is usually the ideal. Fish have been able to move far upstream during the rains, but are prevented from returning to the deeper waters of the main channels and are concentrated in depressions and pools shallow enough for the people to spear them. In such circumstances fish are not scarce, and pools

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ridges (*thor*) in Western Nuerland and in times of flood the people of neighbouring villages encamp there. This advantage is slightly offset by the corresponding fact that there is often insufficient water for the cattle early in the dry season, so that the people of Nyueny are among the first to move to dry season camps. The population of the village is approximately[1] 129 souls.

The village, commencing from the outlying hamlet of Dorpan, consists of the following 26 homesteads.

*Homestead No.* 1 Nyaluthni ♀ —Riel ♂. She is a barren woman with many cattle which she has obtained partly as fees, for she is a well known diviner and magician, and partly from the bride-wealth of her nieces, for her brother has several daughters and she not only gets the cattle due to a bride's paternal aunt but also some of those due to a bride's paternal uncle, because, being barren, she counts in some respects as a man. She exchanged a Dinka woman for cattle (*ce rek jaangu luel ke ghok*). This was not, properly speaking, a marriage but we might describe it more correctly as an exchange or even a purchase. This woman, Luel ♀, bore two children, Majak ♂ and Nyagai ♀, by a Dinka man. Nyaluthni has also married, by payment of bride-wealth and by performance of the usual ceremonial, two Nuer girls. One Nyabuor ♀, gave birth to twins, of whom Buth ♂, survives, by a man of the Jikul clan, Wecyil ♂ by name. When Wecyil ♂ died she cohabited with a Jikany man called Kemkin ♂, and she is now in child by him. The second girl, Nyakoka ♀, has recently been married and she has not yet borne children. She cohabits with Rwot ♂, a kinsman of Nyaluthni of the Tedar minor lineage.

These men do not live in Nyaluthni's homestead but frequently visit it and stay there for one or several nights. They hoe her gardens and are chosen to cohabit with her wives because they are known to be hard-working gardeners. They are given meals when they are present, and on the marriage of the daughters he has begotten the genitor will receive a cow from the bride-wealth of each.

Nyaluthni (generally known as Nyarial after her father) is the pater of the children of her wives and she is always spoken of as such when their names are mentioned. Thus people always speak of Majak ♂ —Nyarial ♀ and Nyagai ♀ —Nyarial ♀. Her children address her as *gua*, "father", and not as *ma*, "mother". She is a woman of outstanding character, with fine features, and always well-dressed. She is very competent and runs her homestead like a man. If her wives are lazy or disobedient she beats them. They treat her with the respect due to a husband and place meals before her with the same ceremony as they would employ to a male husband. She speaks of them as "my wives". She directs the business

[1] I say "approximately" because it was not my intention to compile a census though in fact I did so in the course of my enquiry into matrimonial conditions in the village. Consequently it is possible that two or three girls whom I have reckoned as residents are married to husbands in other villages. This may have been the case at the southernmost end of the village. I know everyone in the of rest the village too well for this mistake to have been made, enquiry always being controlled by personal contact.